

UNIT :1
I.FRENCH REVOLUTION
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The French Revolution

In 1789, in the wake of early morning, the city of Paris was in a state of alarm. Rumours spread that the King would open fire upon the citizens. People started gathering and they started breaking a number of government buildings in search of arms. The commander of the Bastille was killed in the armed fight and the prisoners were released. People hated the Bastille as it stood for the despotic power of the king. People protested against the high price of bread. A new chain of events began which led to the execution of the King in France.

French Society During the Late Eighteenth Century

Louis XVI, in 1774, ascended the throne of France. Financial France was drained because of the war. France, Under Louis XVI, helped the thirteen American colonies to gain their independence from Britain. Taxes were increased to meet regular expenses, such as the cost of maintaining an army, the court, running government offices or universities. The country of France was divided into three estates in the eighteenth century. The feudal system was part of the society estates dated back to the middle ages. 90 percent of the population was dominated by peasants but only a small number of them owned the land they cultivated. 60 percent was owned by nobles, the Church and other richer members of the third estate. The clergy and the nobility, members of the first two estates enjoyed certain privileges by birth. These groups of members were exempted from paying taxes and enjoyed feudal privileges. All members of the third estate had to pay taxes to the state which included a direct tax, called taille, and a number of indirect taxes which were levied on articles of everyday consumption like salt or tobacco.

The Struggle to Survive

Increase in population led to a rapid increase for food grains. Production of grains could not keep pace with the demand due to which the price of bread rose rapidly. Due to low wages paid to the labourers the gap between the poor and the rich widened. Things became worse whenever drought or hail reduced the harvest.

A Growing Middle Class Envisages an End to Privileges

Peasants used to participate in revolts against taxes and food scarcity. Group of the third estate had become prosperous and had access to education and new ideas. In the eighteenth century, new social groups emerged, termed the middle class, who earned their wealth through expanding overseas trade and by manufacturing woollen and silk textiles that were either exported or bought by the richer members of society. The third estate included professions such as lawyers or administrative officials. A person's social position was dependent on their merit.

All these groups were educated and believed that no group in society should be privileged by birth. Rather, a person's social position must depend on his merit. A new form of government was proposed by Rousseau based on a social contract between people and their representatives.

Similarly, Montesquieu proposed a division of power within the government between the legislative, the executive and the judiciary. In the USA, this model of government was put into force. Louis XVI planned to impose further taxes to meet the expenses.

The Outbreak of the Revolution

In France, the monarch didn't have the power to impose taxes. They had to call a meeting of the Estates-General, a political body to which the three estates sent their representatives, to

pass proposals for new taxes. Louis XVI, on 5 May 1789, called an assembly to pass proposals for new taxes. Representatives from the first and second estates were present and the third estate was represented by its prosperous and educated members. According to the principle each estate had one vote. But, representatives from the third estate demanded each member would have one vote. The demand was rejected so members of the third estate walked out to protest. They swore not to disperse till a constitution drafted for France that would limit the powers of the monarch.

Due to the severe winter, bread price rose and people had to spend hours in long queues. Rumours spread that the lords of the manor hired bands of brigands to destroy the ripe crops. In fear, peasants started looting hoarded grain and burnt down documents containing records of manorial dues. Nobles fled from their homes. Louis XVI accorded recognition to the National Assembly and accepted the principle that his powers would from now on be checked by a constitution. The Assembly passed a decree abolishing the feudal system of obligations and taxes on 4 August 1789. Tithes were abolished and lands owned by the Church were confiscated.

France Becomes a Constitutional Monarchy

In 1791, The National Assembly completed the draft of the constitution and its main object was to limit the powers of the monarch. These powers were now separated and assigned to different institutions – the legislature, executive and judiciary. France became a constitutional monarchy.

Citizens voted for a group of electors, who in turn chose the Assembly, but unfortunately, not every citizen had the right to vote. Men above 25 years of age who paid taxes equal to at least 3 days of a labourer's wage were entitled to vote. The Constitution began with a Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen. Rights such as the right to life, freedom of speech, freedom of opinion, equality before law, were established as 'natural and inalienable' rights, that is, they belonged to each human being by birth and could not be taken away.

France Abolishes Monarchy and Becomes a Republic

In April 1792, the National Assembly voted for a war against Prussia and Austria. Marseillaise became the national anthem of France. While men were away fighting at the war, women took care of their families. Large sections of the population demanded that the revolution had to be carried further, as the Constitution of 1791 gave political rights only to the richer sections of society. Political clubs were formed and among them, Jacobins became the most successful club. Members of the Jacobin club included small shopkeepers, artisans such as shoemakers, pastry cooks, watch-makers, printers, as well as servants and daily-wage workers. Jacobin members started wearing long striped trousers similar to those worn by dockworkers. These Jacobins were called the sans-culottes, literally meaning 'those without knee breeches. On August 10 1792, Jacobins stormed the Palace of the Tuileries and held the king hostage for several hours. Elections were held and all men of 21 years and above got the right to vote. Monarchy was abolished on 21 September 1792 and France was declared a republic. Louis XVI was sentenced to death by a court on the charge of treason.

The Reign of Terror

The period from 1793 to 1794 is referred to as the Reign of Terror. People whom Robespierre saw enemies of the republic were arrested, imprisoned and then tried by a revolutionary tribunal. If they were declared guilty by the court then they were guillotined. The guillotine is a device consisting of two poles and a blade with which a person is beheaded, named after Dr

Guillotin. Laws were issued to place a maximum ceiling on wages and prices. Meat and bread were rationed. Expensive white flour was forbidden to use. Equality was practised through forms of speech and address. All French men and women were addressed as Citoyen and Citoyenne (Citizen). In July 1794, he was convicted by a court arrested and the next day sent to the guillotine.

A Directory Rules France

Fall of the Jacobin government allowed the wealthier middle classes to seize power. According to the new constitution, non-propertied sections of society denied voting. It provided for two elected legislative councils. The government appointed a Directory, consisting of executives made up of five members. Political instability paved the way for a military dictator, Napoleon Bonaparte.

Did Women have a Revolution?

Women were active participants from the beginning which brought important changes in the country France. Women from the third estate had to work for a living and they didn't have access to education or job training. Daughters of nobles of the third estate were allowed to study at a convent. Working women also had to care for their families. Compared to men, their wages were lower. Women also started their political clubs and newspapers. The Society of Revolutionary and Republican Women was one of the most famous women's clubs. They demanded equal political rights as men, the right to vote and to hold political office. The revolutionary government introduced laws to improve the lives of women. Schooling became compulsory, divorce made legal and they could run small businesses. During the Reign of Terror, the government closed women's clubs banning their political activities. After much struggle, women in France in 1946 won the right to vote.

The Abolition of Slavery

Jacobin regime's most revolutionary social reform was the abolition of slavery in the French colonies. In the seventeenth century, slavery trade began. Slaves were brought from local chieftains, branded and shackled and were packed tightly into ships for the three-month-long voyage across the Atlantic to the Caribbean. Slave labour met the growing demand in European markets for sugar, coffee, and indigo. Throughout the eighteenth century, there was little criticism of slavery in France. In 1794, the Convention legislated to free all slaves in the French overseas possessions. Napoleon introduced slavery after ten years. In 1848, slavery was abolished in French colonies.

The Revolution and Everyday Life

France during 1789 saw changes in the lives of men, women and children. Abolition of censorship happened in the summer of 1789. Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen proclaimed freedom of speech and expression to be a natural right. Freedom of press meant opposing views of events could be expressed. Plays, songs and festive processions attracted large numbers of people.

Conclusion

Napoleon Bonaparte crowned himself Emperor of France, in 1804 and introduced many laws such as the protection of private property and a uniform system of weights and measures provided by the decimal system. Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo in 1815. The ideas of liberty and democratic rights were the most important legacy of the French Revolution. Colonised peoples reworked on the idea of freedom to create a sovereign nation-state.

II. NAPOLEAN BONAPARTE

Early Life of Napoleon Bonaparte

Napoleon Bonaparte was born in Corsica, an island located on the Mediterranean Coast, on August 15, 1768, to Carlo Buonaparte and Letizia Romalino Buonaparte. Despite being part of the Corsican nobility, Napoleon's family were of modest means.

Napoleon did his schooling in mainland France, graduating from the military academy in 1785. He was commissioned as a second lieutenant of an artillery detachment in the French Army. He was on leave when the French Revolution broke out in 1789, during which he became involved with the Corsican branch of the Jacobins, one of many pro-democratic parties in France at the time. At the time, the Bonaparte family had gotten into a dispute for their pro-democratic leanings with the monarchy supporting the governor of Corsica. The result was them fleeing Corsica for mainland France in 1793, where Napoleon returned to active military duty.

Napoleon came into contact with Augustine Robespierre, the brother of the infamous Maximilien Robespierre. Maximilien Robespierre would herald the Reign of Terror, a period of anarchy marked by violence against and execution of those considered the enemies of the French revolution.

But when the Robespierre brothers fell from power and were guillotined in July 1794, Napoleon was placed under house arrest for a brief period of time due to his association with them. In 1795, he suppressed a monarchy-backed uprising against the revolutionary government, being promoted to a major general as a result.

Rise of Napoleon Bonaparte

The French government was fighting against other European monarchies since 1792. In a series of battles taking place in Italy during 1796, Napoleon led a French army to victory over the much better equipped and larger armies of Austria. The Treaty of Campo Formio signed between France and Austria led to territorial gains for France.

The Directory, a five-member group that governed France since the Reign of Terror ended in 1795, directed Napoleon to lead an invasion of Great Britain. Knowing the French Navy was inadequate to deal with the far more superior British Royal Navy, Napoleon instead proposed an expedition to Egypt, then a British Protectorate. Taking Egypt from the British would effectively cut them off from their vital trade with India, causing widespread economic hardship on the British Isle. Landing in Egypt in 1798, the French army won the Battle of the Pyramids in June of that year.

But during the Battle of the Nile in August, the French Navy was nearly wiped out following the engagement with the British Navy. Later, Napoleon would launch an invasion of Syria in 1798. Syria was then a province of the Ottoman Empire. This campaign would be a failure as well.

With the political situation in France deteriorating, Napoleon decided to return to France. He then became part of the group that overthrew the Directory in 1799.

Now a three-member group called the Consulate ruled France with Napoleon becoming first consul, a position consolidated by his victory over Austria at the Battle of Marengo in June 1800.

Napoleon I, Emperor of France

A constitutional amendment made in 1802 made Napoleon first consul for life. In 1804, he crowned himself, emperor of France, during a lavish ceremony at the Cathedral of Notre Dame

Seeking to restore stability in post-revolutionary France, he centralized the government by introducing reforms in banking and education, supporting science and art. His most significant accomplishment was the creation of the Napoleonic Code, which transformed the French legal system and continues to be the basis of the legal system in France and most of Western Europe to this day.

The Napoleonic Wars broke out in 1803, lasting until 1815. It was a series of conflicts between the French Empire and a coalition of European nations.

On October 1805, the French fleet was annihilated during the battle of Trafalgar, nullifying the threat of invasion of the British Isles. The Battle of Austerlitz in December of that year, however, solidified his reputation as one of the greatest generals in European History. A combined army of Austrians and Russians was defeated by the French and the termination of the Holy Roman Empire that resulted would be a catalyst for the unification of Germany in 1871

Seeking to defeat his British rivals through economic means, Napoleon devised the Continental System in 1806, which blockaded European ports from British Trade. Subsequent victories in 1807 and 1809 against the Russians and Austrians resulted in French territorial gains in central and Eastern Europe

Fall of Napoleon Bonaparte

The Russian withdrawal from the continental system gave Napoleon *casus belli* for Napoleon to launch an invasion of Russia in the summer of 1812. It proved to be a costly mistake as the Russians switched to scorched-earth tactics to deny the French army any hope of preparing for the brutal winter that would follow. By September of that year, both sides had suffered enormous casualties.

The French Army did eventually take Moscow but all they found was an empty city, with its population having evacuated further east. Seeing little point in residing in Moscow, Napoleon retreated back towards the west under constant attack by the Russians. Only 100,000 of the original 600,000 managed to reach the safety of the empire.

Further setbacks for Napoleon awaited him with the defeat of his armies in Spain. Napoleon's forces were again defeated in 1813 during the Battle of Leipzig by a coalition force of Austrian, Prussian, Russian and Swedish troops. He was forced to abdicate his throne when the coalition forces captured Paris. He was exiled to the island of Elba off the coast of Italy while his wife and son were sent to Austria

On February 26, 1815, Napoleon escaped to mainland France, where he was welcomed to Paris by cheering crowds. He began a campaign to reconquer lost French possessions in Europe shortly after.

The French Army invaded Belgium in 1815 in order to defeat a combined British and Prussian army. In the engagement that followed the Prussians were defeated at Ligny but on June 18, at the Battle of Waterloo, the French were crushed by the British through Prussian support. The battle permanently ended Napoleon's threat to Europe. In June 1815, Napoleon was dethroned once again.

Reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte

Napoleon Bonaparte has introduced many reforms during his reign. However, before we begin with the reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte, let's first understand who is Napoleon Bonaparte.

Reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte: -

A Period of Reform in France

The period of Consulate (1799-1804) is a period of great reforms in France. Napoleon had subdued his foreign enemies on the continent and England was quiet. He extends the territories of France and was now free to devote his energy and zeal to administrative matters.

The First Consul was the creation of the Revolution. He called himself "Son of Revolution". As a matter of fact, he destroys the Revolution itself. He continues to believe in liberties. Such as social and economic liberty and to preserve both these liberties in France. But he did not believe in political **liberty**

Thus, most of the administrative reforms happen with this end in view. He gave equal justice, equal rights and equal chances of advancement and **progress** to all Frenchmen. He kept all political powers in his own hands. Thus, political order in France under him was despotism.

Administrative Centralization Reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte

Napoleon wants to centralize all powers in his own hands. Besides, most of the executive and legislative powers were under the Constitution of the Consulate. He brought the law courts in France under his control by subsequent legislation. Thus, in 1800, he completely revises the system of the Local government and Consulate of the country. Elective bodies of the departments (districts), and arrondissements (small districts) were abolished.

Instead, the First Consul was to appoint Prefects and Sub Prefects in their place. Prefects were to appoint mayors of small communes in their districts. The first Consul chooses the Mayors of town with populations more than 5000 each. Thus, local autonomy of any kind ceased to exist in France. All local and central government was centralized in Paris. It became effective, prompt, and uniform. This was what France needed most at the time.

Financial Reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte

He was aware from the very beginning that finance was the backbone of the state. The financial disorder was the cause of the downfall of the ancient regime in France. He, therefore, put himself against this danger (peril).

He adopts several ways and means to bring in money:

In the first place, Napoleon exacted heavy tributes from the lands he invaded and desolated.

Secondly, he ensures that taxes in France were carefully collected.

Thirdly, he enforced a rigid economy everywhere in his administration.

- **The Bank of France**

In 1800, Napoleon established the Bank of France. This was the crowning achievement of his financial reforms. Ever since its establishment, the Bank of France was one of the soundest financial institutions in the world.

- **Ecclesiastical Settlement-Concordat**

Finance was torn asunder by religious dissensions for a decade. So, Napoleon wants to establish peace in this sphere too. He fully appreciates the importance of religion as a political lever and determines to use it for his own ends.

Therefore, he was prepared to leave the Catholics undisturbed if they ceased to interfere with the State and did not plot against him. Also, he wants to gain the active support of the conscientious French Catholics, who drifted away because of the anti-clerical measures of the revolutionaries.

He, therefore, concluded a settlement with Pope Pius VII in April 1802. This settlement is famous as Concordat. The Pope recognized the confiscation and sale of the church property during the early period of the Revolution. He also agreed to the suppression of the monasteries.

Further, the First Consul appoints the bishops and the Bishops were to appoint the priests. Thus, the Catholic Church in France became national and branch of the government. The Concordat gave a considerable immediate advantage to Napoleon, as the clergy were strictly subordinate to the State and became his willing Vassals.

Judicial Reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte-The Code Napoleon

Prior to the **French Revolution**, France was under a set of haphazard and perplexing laws. There was no uniformity in the judicial system of the country. There were different historical origins of different laws.

As a result, there was a strong desire to do away with this confusion and discrepancies of the several legal systems in the country. The constitution of 1791 had promised to do so and the National Convention had ordered work on it. But things had delayed the job. Thus, it was ultimately left to the genius of Napoleon to do away with the abuses of the system.

Subsequently, Napoleon took up the work in hand and completely rebuild the legal system of the country. A great civil code was brought out in 1804. As a result, there was the adoption of the Codes. Such as Civil Procedure, Code of Criminal Procedure, Penal Code, and a Commercial Code.

Actually, nothing was left beyond the scope of Code Napoleon. Frenchmen, after all, had a body of law-clear, rational, and national-on all aspects of life. They now know what was legal and what was illegal.

All these codes-sets of Laws were so simple and elegant. Even several states on the continents copied and applied them. Laws of Napoleon guarantee civil equality, religious toleration, legal arrest, equality of inheritance, and the Trial by Jury. Thus, Napoleon was not wrong when he remarked at St. Helena that “my real glory is not my having won forty battles, what will never be affected, what will endure forever is my civil code.” No wonder then that Napoleon has been hailed as a second Justinian.

- **The Legion of Honour**

Napoleon establishes the institution of the Legion of Honour, to honour and reward those who render distinguished service to the state. This institution became extremely popular in France.

Educational Reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte

Napoleon's reforming zeal touches every aspect of life. He felt that the nation's educational system was defective that the state did not have much control over it. Hence, the First Consul established a University in Paris. In fact, the first University in France. This was to make the educational system a standard one and uniform throughout the country. The First Consul appointed its chief officers. Anyone who wants to open a school or wishing to do private teaching needs to obtain a license from the University. All education was to conform to the Catholic Church and was to be loyal to the state and the First Consul.

Napoleon did not want to encourage private education. He, therefore, established a regular system of education in the country. In the first place, every commune was to maintain primary schools and the prefects were to manage the affairs of these schools. They were more or less municipal schools.

Secondly, grammar schools were open with the object of providing special training in French, Latin, and elementary sciences. In fact, the government controls these schools.

Thirdly, High schools were open in all important towns. The government also controls these schools. Besides, the government appoints the teachers in these schools.

Fourthly, there were special types of schools like the technical schools and the military schools-fall under governmental Patronage and control.

Public Work Reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte

In another field too, Napoleon changes the very face of France in the course of a few years. This was in regard to public works. He improves the existing roads and constructs new ones. Most of the modern roads of France were actually built with the orders of Napoleon. He could boast of having got constructed at least 299 roads. Thirty of them were most important and became the very arteries of France. These roads connect almost all parts of France with Paris. The most wonderful feat of the road-construction works was that Turin, Milan, Rome and Naples were all brought in touch with Paris.

Besides, he constructs bridges and canals dugout. Marshes were drained and dikes strengthened. Some of the important harbours like Toulon were enlarged and fortified. Public buildings were enlarged and beautified.

He also converts Paris into a beautiful city with broad roads and spacious parks. The population of Paris almost doubled in the time of Napoleon and it became one of the fashionable cities in Europe.

The most remarkable aspect of all this work of construction was that it did not cost the nation much, as the prisoners of war were doing all this job. The net result of these reforms was that trade and commerce became very brisk. It helps the economic welfare and prosperity of the people. No wonder, Napoleon became the idol of the nation. He gave to France not only military and political glories but also economic prosperity

III. CONGRESS OF VIENNA

Congress of Vienna, assembly in 1814–15 that reorganized Europe after the Napoleonic Wars. It began in September 1814, five months after Napoleon I's first abdication and completed its "Final Act" in June 1815, shortly before the Waterloo campaign and the final defeat of Napoleon. The settlement was the most-comprehensive treaty that Europe had ever seen

Preliminaries

Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain, the four powers that were chiefly instrumental in the overthrow of Napoleon, had concluded a special alliance among themselves with the Treaty of Chaumont, on March 9, 1814, a month before Napoleon's first abdication. The subsequent treaties of peace with France, signed on May 30 not only by the "four" but also by Sweden and Portugal and on July 20 by Spain, stipulated that all former belligerents should send plenipotentiaries to a congress in Vienna. Nevertheless, the "four" still intended to reserve the real decision making for themselves.

Delegates

Representatives began to arrive in Vienna toward the end of September 1814. All of Europe sent its most-important statesmen. Klemens, prince von Metternich, principal minister of Austria, represented his emperor, Francis II. Tsar Alexander I of Russia directed his own diplomacy. King Frederick William III of Prussia had Karl, prince von Hardenberg, as his principal minister. Great Britain was represented by its foreign minister, Viscount Castlereagh. When Castlereagh had to return to his parliamentary duties, the duke of Wellington replaced him, and Lord Clancarty was principal representative after the duke's departure. The restored Louis XVIII of France sent Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand. Spain, Portugal, and Sweden had only men of moderate ability to represent them. Many of the rulers of the minor states of Europe put in an appearance. With them came a host of courtiers, secretaries, and ladies to enjoy the magnificent social life of the Austrian court. Assisting Metternich as host, Friedrich Gentz played a vital role in the management of protocol and in the secretarial organization of the congress. The social side of the congress was, in fact, one of the causes of the long and unexpected delay in producing a result, for Metternich at least sometimes subordinated business to pleasure.

Procedure

The procedure of the congress was determined by the difficulty and complexity of the issues to be solved. First there was the problem of the organization of the congress, for which there was no precedent. The "four" were determined to keep the management of the main problems entirely in their own hands, but since they had rather rashly summoned a congress, they had to pay some attention to it. Thus, the ministers of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain assembled early for discussions and finally agreed, on September 22, 1814, that the "four" should be those to decide the future of all the conquered territories. They were then to communicate their decisions to France and Spain. The full congress was to be summoned only when all was ready.

Such was the situation that Talleyrand found when he arrived on September 24. He refused to accept it and was supported by Spain's representative, the Marqués de Labrador. Talleyrand denied that either the "four" or the "six" (including France and Spain) was a legally constituted body and desired that the congress should be summoned to elect a directing committee. If any other body had rights in the matter, it was the group of powers—Austria,

Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, Sweden, Spain, and Portugal—that had signed the 1814 Treaty of Paris with France (thus, the “eight”), which ended the Napoleonic Wars for the first time. The core four were much disturbed, knowing that the smaller powers would support Talleyrand if they gave him the chance of appealing to them. They had no intention of giving way, however, and refused to summon a meeting of all the representatives. The opening of the congress was postponed until November 1. No solution could be found, however, and after a meeting of the “eight” on October 30, the opening was again postponed.

Meanwhile, work proceeded without the sanction of the main body of plenipotentiaries. The “four” discussed the main territorial problems informally among themselves. The “eight” assumed the formal direction of the congress; a committee of German states met to draw up a constitution for Germany, and a special committee on Switzerland was appointed by the “four.” Talleyrand was thus excluded from the main work of the congress, but his protests on behalf of the smaller powers grew fainter as he realized that the “four” were not in agreement; Castlereagh and Metternich gradually won his confidence and at last insisted on Bourbon France’s being admitted to the core group. It was that committee of five that was the real Congress of Vienna. Between January 7 and February 13, 1815, it settled the frontiers of all territories north of the Alps and laid the foundations for the settlement of Italy. Meanwhile, the committee of eight dealt with more-general matters. The congress as a representative body of all Europe never met.

Decisions of The Congress

The major points of friction occurred over the disposition of Poland and Saxony, the conflicting claims of Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, and the adjustment of the borders of the German states. In general, Russia and Prussia were opposed by Austria, France, and England, which at one point (January 3, 1815) went so far as to conclude a secret treaty of defensive alliance. The major final agreements were as follows.

In return for acquiring Poland, Alexander gave back Galicia to Austria and gave Thorn and a region around it to Prussia; Kraków was made a free town. The rest of the Duchy of Warsaw was incorporated as a separate kingdom under the Russian emperor’s sovereignty. Prussia got two-fifths of Saxony and was compensated by extensive additions in Westphalia and on the left bank of the Rhine River. It was Castlereagh who insisted on Prussian acceptance of the latter territory, with which it had been suggested the king of Saxony should be compensated. Castlereagh wanted Prussia to guard the territories of the Rhine region against France and act as a buttress to the new Kingdom of the Netherlands, which comprised both the former United Provinces and Belgium. Austria was compensated by Lombardy and Venice and got back most of Tirol. Bavaria, Württemberg, and Baden on the whole did well. Hanover was also enlarged. The outline of a constitution, a loose confederation, was drawn up for Germany—a triumph for Metternich. Denmark lost Norway to Sweden but got Lauenburg, while Swedish Pomerania went to Prussia. Switzerland was given a new constitution.

In Italy, Piedmont absorbed Genoa; Tuscany and Modena went to an Austrian archduke; and the Duchy of Parma and Piacenza was given to Marie-Louise, consort of the deposed Napoleon. The Papal States were restored to the pope, and Naples went to the Sicilian Bourbons.

Valuable articles were agreed to on the free navigation of international rivers and diplomatic precedence. Castlereagh’s great efforts for the abolition of the slave trade were rewarded only by a pious declaration.

The Final Act of the Congress of Vienna comprised all the agreements in one great instrument. It was signed on June 9, 1815, by the “eight” (except Spain, which refused as a protest against the Italian settlement). All the other powers subsequently acceded to it. As a result, the political boundaries laid down by the Congress of Vienna lasted, except for one or two changes, for more than 40 years. The statesmen had successfully worked out the principle of a balance of power. However, the idea of nationality had been almost entirely ignored—necessarily so because it was not yet ready for expression. Territories had been bartered about without much reference to the wishes of their inhabitants. Until an even greater settlement took place at Versailles after World War I, it was customary for historians to condemn the statesmen of Vienna. It was later realized how difficult their task was, as was the fact that they secured for Europe a period of peace, which was its cardinal need. The statesmen failed, however, to give to international relations any organ by which their work could be adapted to the new forces of the 19th century, and it was ultimately doomed to destruction.

IV. REVOLUTION OF 1830 TO 1848

The Rise of Nationalism in Europe

Frédéric Sorrieu vision of World

Frédéric Sorrieu, a French artist, in 1848 prepared a series of four prints visualising his dream of a world made up of democratic and Social Republics.

1. The first print shows the people of Europe and America marching in a long train and offering homage to the Statue of Liberty as they pass it. The torch of Enlightenment was carried by a female figure in one hand and the Charter of the Rights of Man in the other.
2. On the earth in the foreground lie the shattered remains of the symbols of absolutist institutions.
3. In Sorrieu’s utopian vision, the people of the world are grouped as distinct nations, identified through their flags and national costume.
4. The procession was led by the United States and Switzerland, followed by France and Germany. Following the German people are the people of Austria, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Lombardy, Poland, England, Ireland, Hungary and Russia.
5. From the heavens above, Christ, saints and angels gaze upon the scene. They have been used by the artist to symbolise fraternity among the nations of the world.

During the nineteenth century, nationalism emerged as a force which brought huge changes in the political and mental world of Europe. The end result of these changes was the emergence of the nation-state.

The French Revolution and the Idea of the Nation

1. In 1789 Nationalism came with French Revolution and the political and constitutional changes led to the transfer of sovereignty from the monarchy to a body of French citizens. Various measures and practices were introduced such as the ideas of la patrie (the fatherland) and le citoyen (the citizen). A new French flag, the tricolour was chosen to replace the former one.

2. Democracy destroyed in France by Napoleon and the Civil Code of 1804 known as Napoleonic Code did away with all privileges based on birth, established equality before the law and secured the right to property.

The Making of Nationalism in Europe

Germany, Italy and Switzerland were divided into kingdoms, duchies and cantons whose rulers had their autonomous territories.

The Aristocracy and the New Middle Class

The Aristocracy was the dominant class on the continent politically and socially. The majority of the population was made up of the peasantry. Industrialisation began in England in the second half of the eighteenth century. New social groups came into being: a working-class population and middle classes made up of industrialists, businessmen, professionals.

What did Liberal Nationalism Stand for?

1. The term 'liberalism' derives from the Latin root liber, meaning free. The right to vote and to get elected was granted exclusively to property-owning men. Men without property and all women were excluded from political rights.
2. In 1834, a customs union or zollverein was formed at the initiative of Prussia and joined by most of the German states. The union abolished tariff barriers and reduced the number of currencies from over thirty to two.

A New Conservatism after 1815 :

- In 1815, European governments were driven by a spirit of conservatism. Conservatives believed in monarchy, the Church, social hierarchies, property and that the family should be preserved.
- A modern army, an efficient bureaucracy, a dynamic economy, the abolition of feudalism and serfdom could strengthen the autocratic monarchies of Europe.
- In 1815, representatives of the European powers – Britain, Russia, Prussia and Austria met in Vienna to draw up a settlement for Europe.
- The Bourbon dynasty was restored to power and France lost the territories it had annexed under Napoleon.
- The major issues taken up by the liberal-nationalists, who criticised the new conservative order, was freedom of the press.

The Revolutionaries

1. In 1815, secret societies were formed in many European states to train revolutionaries and spread their ideas. Revolutionary opposed monarchical forms, fight for liberty and freedom.
2. The Italian revolutionary Giuseppe Mazzini, born in Genoa in 1807, founded two more underground societies, first, Young Italy in Marseilles.
3. Secondly, he founded Young Europe in Berne, whose members were like-minded young men from Poland, France, Italy and the German states.

The Age of Revolutions: 1830-1848

In July 1830, Bourbon Kings were overthrown by liberal revolutionaries who installed a constitutional monarchy with Louis Philippe at its head. The July Revolution sparked an uprising in Brussels which led to Belgium breaking away from the United Kingdom of the Netherlands. In 1821, Greeks struggled for independence.

The Romantic Imagination and National Feeling

1. Culture played an important role in creating the idea of the nation: art and poetry, stories and music helped express and shape nationalist feelings.
2. Romanticism, a cultural movement which sought to develop a particular form of nationalist sentiment. Language also played an important role in developing nationalist sentiments.
3. Russian language was imposed everywhere and in 1831 an armed rebellion against Russian rule took place which was ultimately crushed.

Hunger, Hardship and Popular Revolt

Europe faced economic hardships in the 1830s. The first half of the nineteenth century saw an enormous increase in population all over Europe. The rise of food prices or a year of bad harvest led to widespread pauperism in town and country. In 1848, food shortages and widespread unemployment brought the population of Paris out on the roads.

The Revolution of the Liberals

In 1848, a revolution led by the educated middle classes was underway. Men and women of the liberal middle class demanded creation of a nation-state on parliamentary principles – a constitution, freedom of the press and freedom of association.

A large number of political associations came together in Frankfurt to vote for an all-German National Assembly. On 18 May 1848, 831 elected representatives marched to take their places in the Frankfurt parliament convened in the Church of St Paul.

The Constitution drafted for German nation was headed by a monarchy, subject to a Parliament. The Crown was offered to Friedrich Wilhelm IV, King of Prussia but he rejected it and joined other monarchs to oppose the elected assembly. The Middle Class dominated the Parliament and a large number of women participated in liberal movement.

Women formed their own political associations, founded newspapers and took part in political meetings and demonstrations, but they were still denied suffrage rights during the election of the Assembly.

In the years after 1848, the autocratic monarchies of Central and Eastern Europe began to introduce the changes that had already taken place in Western Europe before 1815. Thus, serfdom and bonded labour were abolished both in the Habsburg dominions and in Russia.

The Making of Germany and Italy

Germany

Nationalism in Europe moved away after 1848 and Germany and Italy came to be unified as nation-states. Prussia took over the leadership of the movement for national unification. The

architect of this process was its chief minister, Otto von Bismarck, carried out with the help of the Prussian army and bureaucracy.

In January 1871, the Prussian King, William I, was proclaimed German Emperor. An assembly was held to proclaim the new German Empire. The process of nation-building demonstrated the dominance of Prussian state power. The currency, banking, legal and judicial system in Germany were modernised.

Italy Unified

Italy was divided into seven states, in the middle of the nineteenth century, and among all the seven states, Sardinia-Piedmont, was ruled by an Italian princely house. All the regions were dominated by different kings. In the 1830's Giuseppe Mazzini formed a secret society called Young Italy.

The movement was led by Chief Minister Cavour. In 1859, Sardinia-Piedmont defeated Austrian forces. In 1860, they marched into South Italy and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies and succeeded in winning the support of the local peasants. In 1861 Victor Emmanuel II was proclaimed king of united Italy.

The Strange Case of Britain

Great Britain was the model of the nation and prior to the eighteenth century there was no British nation. The nation became powerful as it steadily grew in wealth, importance and power.

The Act of Union (1707) between England and Scotland resulted in the formation of the 'United Kingdom of Great Britain' meant, in effect, that England was able to impose its influence on Scotland. In 1801, Ireland was forcibly incorporated into the United Kingdom. The symbols of the new Britain – the British flag (Union Jack), the national anthem (God Save Our Noble King), the English language – were actively promoted.

Visualising the Nation

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries artists represented a country as a person and nations as female figures. During the French Revolution, female figures portray ideas such as Liberty, Justice and the Republic. Liberty is represented as a red cap, or the broken chain, Justice a blindfolded woman carrying a pair of weighing scales.

Nationalism and Imperialism

Nationalism no longer retained after the last quarter of the nineteenth century. After 1871, the most tensioned area was called the Balkans a region comprising modern-day Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, Greece, Macedonia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Slovenia, Serbia and Montenegro.

Ottoman Empire made the Balkans region explosive and all through the nineteenth century they strengthened themselves through modernisation and internal reforms. Due to various conflicts the Balkan became an area of intense conflict.

During this period, intense rivalry built among the European powers over trade and colonies as well as naval and military might which led to a series of wars in the region and finally the First World War.

In 1914, Europe was disasted because of Nationalism, aligned with imperialism. Anti-imperial movements were developed but they all struggled to form independent nation-states. But the idea of 'nation-states' was accepted as natural and universal.
